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A FRAMEWORK FOR THE APPLICATION
OF MOTIVATIONAL THEORY IN AN
ORGANIZATION

BY

Arthur B. O'Connell

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Bachelor of Arts

Trinity College, 1955

A Thesis Submitted to the School of Government and
Business Administration of The George Washington
University in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of
Master of Business Administration

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Thesis directed by

Richard A. Barrett

Associate Professor of Business Administration

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

"The psychology of motivation is tremendously complex, and what has been unraveled with any degree of assurance is small indeed. But the dismal ratio of knowledge to speculation has not dampened the enthusiasm for new forms of snake oil that are constantly coming on the market, many of them with academic testimonials."--Herzberg¹

Subject Area

The objective of this thesis is to propose a framework within which motivational theory can be applied in an organization. It is not the intent of this work to add to the speculation addressed by Herzberg in the above quotation. This chapter commences with a discussion of motivation in an effort to define the term; it is followed by an examination of the objectives of the study; and the latter section of the chapter deals with the applicable parameters of the analysis.

Paul T. Young offers a possible explanation for the many so called "new forms of snake oil" when he describes in

¹Frederick Herzberg, "One More Time: How Do You Motivate Employees?" Harvard Business Review, Vol. XLII, No. 1, (January-February, 1968), p. 53.

what area the psychotechnologists have addressed their attention:

In general, psychotechnologists have little concern for the theory of motivation. Their orientation is practical. The industrial psychologist, for example, seeks to find a wage-incentive system that yields optimal production and high morale. Again, the educational psychologist seeks a method of motivating Mary and Johnnie so that they will study their arithmetic lessons more effectively. To such practically minded men the study of motivation is important without regard to theoretical considerations.²

One ponders, then, if the psychotechnologist can rightly be criticized for his pragmatic approach. The objectives of this work will be discussed in more detail subsequently in this chapter; but for the interim period, it will suffice to state that the approach adhered to will be practical, although not narrowly technique oriented.

The logical progression in discussing the field of motivation first demands a definition of the term. The word motivation is derived from the Latin word movere which means "to move". Motivation is the process or activity by which movement is aroused or excited. The context in which the term is generally employed would narrow itself down to one specific type of movement--behavior.

Young, however, saliently makes the following observation:

The study of motivation, however, is not

²Paul T. Young, Motivation and Emotion: A Survey of the Determinants of Human and Animal Activity (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1961), p. 3.

restricted to the process of evoking behavior; it includes an analysis of the conditions which sustain activity and which regulate and direct its patterning. An important problem, in the study of motivation, is accounting for the purposiveness of behavior.³

Where does it all start? The key word which should be emphatically emphasized is action. Saul W. Gellerman stresses that word when he discusses motivation, for it is with and because of action that everything begins.⁴ In any undertaking of human activity nothing of any consequence occurs until a person desires to act.

The shortcoming which must be avoided in defining and examining the word motivation is stated succinctly by Young:

Motivation is a word that wears a halo. It is like justice, democracy, freedom. Everybody approves of it. Yet there is little agreement as to what it means. Furthermore, the whole field of motivational psychology is characterized by turmoil, confusion and uncertainty.⁵

Two main criteria which should most probably emerge or be connected with any motivational definition would include the energetic aspect, as well as the aspects of direction and regulation.

Most of the reference to this point has solely related to the individual. Robert Dubin, in his definition of motivation, places it in a more proper setting as follows:

³Ibid., p. 17.

⁴Saul W. Gellerman, Motivation and Productivity (New York: American Management Association, Inc., 1963), p. 7.

⁵Young, Motivation and Emotion, p. xi.

Motivation may be defined as the complex of forces starting and keeping a person at work in an organization. To put it generally, motivation starts and maintains an activity along a prescribed line. Motivation is something that moves the person to action, and continues him in the course of action already initiated. Furthermore--and this is important--motivation is part of an activity at work.

Clearly there are forces inside the person starting and maintaining activity. Whether we call them drives, instincts, wishes, or tension states, they can be described as mechanisms of the organism. . . .⁶

Once the individual is placed within the organizational environment the definition takes on a much broader area for consideration. The terms direction and regulation should be referable to the word motivation in an organizational setting. Dubin meets this requirement in an elaboration of his earlier cited definition:

We must view motivation as some form of exchange between the individual and his social environment. The social environment gives to the individual sets of preferences or values which constitute the goals towards which the instinctual drives are expressed. Furthermore, the social environment is the source of norms of behavior which draw the line between good and bad, right and wrong, legitimate and illegitimate. The values and norms come from the social environment and both are important guides for channeling the inborn drives of the individual.

The other half of the exchange in the motivational model is the degree to which the individual either conforms to social expectations in his behavior, or departs from these expectations.

Conforming behavior tends to support the continued existence of the social system from which the norms and values are secured; departures from conformity may threaten the system. Thus, in exchange for the received values and norms, the individual gives back to the social system his

⁶Robert Dubin, Human Relations in Administration (2nd ed.; Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1961), p. 49.

loyalty and adherence in the form of meeting the system's behavioral expectations.⁷

Douglas McGregor would probably portray the system in a most appropriate way by referring to it as "transactional" (influencing in a two-way process).⁸

For the purpose of this work, motivation will be viewed as a complex process of stimulating action, sustaining the activity in progress, and regulating the pattern of activity. Also, in view of the "transactional" characteristic of the motivational process, it should be viewed as an exchange between the person and his social environment. This concept will be the base or departure for a further understanding of the meaning of motivation in organizations.

Objectives

The ubiquitous nature and scope of the field of motivation presents an onerous challenge for a manager in an organization as he faces the plethora of writings and research findings. This range of theories and information is not only broad and difficult to comprehend, but highly differentiated: this leads to problems in application. Just gaining a meaningful exposure to the mass of data would be a challenge in itself. The manager, in reality, faces for all practical matters an almost insurmountable task. Academicians in the field,

⁷Ibid., p. 46.

⁸Douglas McGregor, The Professional Manager, ed. by Caroline McGregor and Warren G. Bennis (New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1967), p. 15.

seemingly, would find themselves fully occupied: pity the poor manager.

Victor Vroom places the issue in a realistic perspective when he states:

There would appear to be a pressing need for some kind of organization and integration of existing knowledge in the field of work and motivation. A critical and comprehensive examination of existing empirical evidence is required to show us where we now stand in our efforts to find principles and generalizations, and to indicate promising new avenues for research.⁹

Vroom in his book, Work and Motivation, undertook that stupendous effort and achieved a high degree of success. Fortunately or unfortunately (depending on one's viewpoint) a similar effort of that magnitude is well beyond the boundaries of this paper.

The strategical approach of this work is similar to the Congressional technique of dealing with the aids to calculation in the federal budgetary process as described by Aaron Wildavsky. Simplification of the complex process is the key.¹⁰

To deal with all the overwhelming multiplicity of data is not the intention. The approach or objective is to deal with the basic assumptions and philosophies of management as the foundation or framework within which motivational practices are actuated. All techniques, tools, mechanisms, and motivational

⁹Victor H. Vroom, Work and Motivation (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1964), p. 5.

¹⁰Aaron Wildavsky, The Politics of the Budgetary Process (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1964), p. 11.

ctions have as their base the assumptions a manager makes concerning the nature of man (used here in the context of man and the work environment being inextricably bound together). The manager is not only limited by the basic assumptions he makes, but his subsequent motivational strategies are only appropriate as related to the validity of those basic assumptions.

McGregor emphasizes the importance of perceptions (these would be greatly influence by one's assumptions) relating to reality, as he infers that some common managerial perceptions of reality differ substantially from present day behavioral science knowledge about reality in the following ways:

1. The nature of man.
2. How man is motivated.
3. The role of emotion in behavior.
4. The significance of man's social nature.¹¹

It is the intention of this thesis to establish a framework within which motivational tools are applied via managerial strategies in an organization. The point of departure will be basic assumptions on the nature of man as will be described in Chapter II of this work. Chapter III, using Maslow's hierarchy of needs concept as a base, will show the interrelationship of the various theories to the basic assumptions. Chapter IV, using a case study as the vehicle for discussion, will describe an actual application of the framework proposed and how it was successfully executed in a real life

¹¹McGregor, The Professional Manager, p. 30.

situation.

To clarify the substance of the previous paragraph an example will be utilized. Joseph N. Scanlon, the developer of the Scanlon Plan, was a practicing as well as academic contributor to the proposal that man "the worker" could, through participative means, bring about organizational excellence.¹²

The Scanlon Plan has as its framework the basic assumption that people in the work environment are capable of being mature adults in their relationships with each other, and that they are capable of self-direction, of self-discipline, and self-control.¹³ The focal point to be emphasized is that the motivational tools to be used in applying this plan to an organization must be based on the framework or foundation of the plan. Any manager who does not share the basic assumptions made by Scanlon cannot effectively use that strategy.

McGregor sees this collaborative effort not as a formula, program, or set of procedures, but as a way of industrial life.¹⁴

It would appear extremely relevant that the Scanlon Plan is furnishing something substantially more than the economic rewards of a regular profit sharing plan. Involvement and

¹²Frederick G. Lesieur (ed.), The Scanlon Plan (Cambridge, Mass. and New York: Technology Press of Massachusetts Institute of Technology and John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1958), p. 8.

¹³Ibid., p. 13.

¹⁴Douglas McGregor, The Human Side of Enterprise (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1960), p. 110.

erdependence in the work environment as fulfillment of higher
ds, must surely be recognized as outcomes of this creative
proach. Scanlon believed that participation, through his plan,
ought about social motivations, which with their constructive
d positive implications, had a great deal to offer workers and
nagement alike (transactional).¹⁵

In summary, it will be the objective of this work to
ow that a high degree of diagnostic skill is required to deal
th the multiple factors affecting the choice of managerial
strategies for applying motivational methodology in an organiza-
on, but the universal initiation point would be the
assumptions (or managerial philosophy which emanate from the
assumptions) on the nature of people. These are the basic
uilding blocks from which a manager directs his motivational
ethodology.

If a manager is to be successful motivating people, his
ody of knowledge on motivation as well as the assumptions he
akes must be valid. The implication being that if his frame-
ork is distorted, then this will be manifested as the manager
xecutes his strategy.

Parameters of Study

This study is restricted primarily to information
vailable through secondary sources. Wherever possible the
esire has been to restrict the analysis within the convergence

¹⁵Lesieur, The Scanlon Plan, p. 13.

of present day interpretation of data. In such a comprehensive and complex field this choice was dictated by the voluminous mass of literature directly related, as well as indirectly related to the area of inquiry.

One basic limitation, as established by Vroom in his study, should be explicitly addressed: specifically excluded from the complex area of motivated behavior are the reflexes or tropisms as well as responses interposed by the autonomic nervous system such as salivation or heart rate.¹⁶

Another limitation implicit in the definition previously set forth is that lower organisms are automatically excluded from discussion when the term motivation is referred to.

Social environment, when used, primarily refers to the work organization of an individual. This is the environment of particular interest in this discourse. It is within this environment that the relationship between the activity and motivation is relevant.

A third limitation subscribed to is that people can not be programmed in the similar fashion in which a machine can be. No particular narrow clearly defined "cluster" can be ascribed to the multiple motives or actions of people. Human beings, unlike a machine, are not amenable to that sort of programming or control.

To conclude this chapter, reference again is directed to

¹⁶Vroom, Work and Motivation, p. 6.

Dubin as he best exemplifies the parameters of this approach:

When we see motivation as involving an exchange between the individual and his social environment, we have the key idea in understanding the meaning of motivation in organizations. It can now make sense to talk about "motivating soldiers to fight," or "motivating junior executives" or "motivating workers." In each instance we are talking about someone imbedded in a social system, an organization. These statements imply that we reach these organization members from the outside in order to get them to perform to our highest level of expectation. Indeed, it is only because we can picture motivation as a form of exchange that it is even meaningful to talk about "motivating organization members." Without this notion of exchange between the person and the social system in which he operates, motivation would be beyond social control and the managers of organizations would be helpless to channel motivations or to modify the level at which they operate.

Motivation then comes down to this. We all possess the basic instinctual drives. These drives do not by themselves result in determining behaviors, or the level of effort and performance put into the behaviors. The social environment provides the guide lines by which choices among alternative behaviors are made, and in exchange receives from the individual his conformity to the appropriate expectations placed upon him.

We have so far not introduced the notion of rewards or punishments as the payoff for motivated behavior. We can now fit rewards and punishments into the model of motivation. Something happens at the end of a motivated act. The actor gets "something" out of what he has just done. This "something" is his reward for doing it with distinction. This "something" may also be punishment for not doing the expected, or for performing as planned, but poorly.

At the same time, the social system in which the actor participates also experiences "something" at the end of a motivated act. This "something" is either success or failure in the accomplishment of an expected organizational result. In this sense the organization is also rewarded or punished from the outcome of motivated acts by its members.¹⁷

¹⁷ Dubin, Human Relations in Administration, pp. 46-47.

It is within this conceptual understanding that a framework for the application of motivational theories in any organization has its foundation and viability.

Lastly, motivation methodology is only one field of activity in which the manager in an organization finds himself involved. No claim is made that it is even his most important endeavour. The suggestion is submitted that it is an integral part of his functioning, but only when viewed as a segment of an interrelated matrix of many other truly significant activities.

CHAPTER II

THE SPRINGBOARD FOR MOTIVATIONAL METHODOLOGY:

ASSUMPTIONS ON THE NATURE OF MAN

"One thing that we are likely to discover when we examine any particular manager's assumptions is his insistence that he hasn't made any. Most managers are pragmatic, matter-of-fact men who handle problems as they arise. He does very little theorizing about what concepts can account for his experience or what generalized forces may underlie the problems he encounters. . . ."--Gellerman¹

A Prelude on the Importance of Assumptions

Dealing with the hard core, well defined, agreed upon and explicit facts important to a managerial decision or action is probably one of the easier tasks the manager has to accomplish. On the other hand, exploring the implied notions of what we are doing and why we are doing it is a more difficult challenge for most practical minded managers; little attention, it would seem, has been addressed to the need for scrutinizing

¹Saul W. Gellerman, The Management of Human Relations (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1966), p. 42.

basic assumptions.² A worst fault is the denial of the presence of assumptions at all, or the presence of completely subjective assumptions.

The purpose of this chapter is to examine, in broad terms, the various assumptions commonly held among managers concerning the nature of man. The first order of business would be to clarify why the assumptions on the nature of man are important.

The value of this examination does not rest in the categorization of managerial assumptions in themselves. The main criterion for understanding them, as well as their development, rests in their implications and impact on the selection of various managerial strategies (particularly as related to motivational strategies in this paper). McGregor emphasizes this same point in his discussion of "cosmologies"³ in Chapter I of The Professional Manager.

In keeping with the transactional characteristic of the motivational process and the importance of assumptions, McGregor states:

Underlying assumptions--theoretical considerations--influence managerial behavior not only with respect to policies and procedures and techniques, but with respect to subtle aspects of everyday behavior which determine the "climate" of human relationships. These daily manifestations

²O.A. Ohmann, "Search for a Managerial Philosophy," Harvard Business Review, XXXV, No. 5, (September-October, 1957), p. 43.

³McGregor defines "Cosmology" as the theory of the universe as a whole and the laws governing it.

of theory and attitude in turn affect the expectations of subordinates concerning their ability to achieve their goals and satisfy their needs through membership in the organization. Formal policies, programs, and procedures will be administered and in turn perceived in the light of the managerial climate. Its importance is primary--the "machinery" of administration is secondary.⁴

Viewing assumptions in this light brings forth the realization that the basic assumptions influence not only the "tactics"⁵ employed in operations; but also influence the more important "strategies"⁶ adopted which, in turn, establish the overall organizational climate or environment.

In this context it can be readily understood that the assumptions made by a manager create a pervasive overlay on all his actions; therefore, they must be stated explicitly. For them to remain nebulous and hidden is a state of affairs which should be completely unacceptable to an alert, effective, and responsible manager. Of equal importance is the objective reality and validity of the assumptions made. As previously noted, only incorrect actions and strategies can emanate from inaccurate and false assumptions.

Henry Knowles and Borge Saxberg assert that no other

⁴McGregor, The Human Side of Enterprise, pp. 143-144.

⁵Tactics as used in this work refer to the means and routine transactions utilized in the light of existing circumstances.

⁶Strategies as used in this work refer to the deliberately planned and adopted ways of managing people. They bring about the circumstances present in the environment and often lead to a chain of connected consequences manifested in procedures or techniques.

activity has more relevance on the ultimate form of organizational life than the assumptions about the nature of man in all its sources and effects.⁷

Lastly, Herzberg indicates disappointingly the state of achievement man has reached in understanding the nature of man when he concludes:

Unfortunately, the knowledge man has obtained about the human condition continues to fall far behind his phenomenal progress in solving problems in his environment. At least the tentative answers to the questions have not been accepted. . . . Perhaps the philosophers preoccupation with the verities of existence smacks too much of medieval metaphysics for the Space-Age man.⁸

This reflection, if accepted at face value, is certainly a condemnation of the social scientist's progress as contrasted with the progress which has been attained by the physical scientist. Perhaps this is the appropriate juncture in time for a retrenchment and reassessment of the knowledge gained to date from the behavioral scientist. If the assumptions on the nature of man are paramount to subsequent courses of action, they had better be examined thoroughly before proceeding onward. This is the intention of this chapter.

⁷Henry P. Knowles and Borje O. Saxberg, "Human Relations and the Nature of Man," Harvard Business Review, XLV, No. 2, (March-April, 1967), p. 23.

⁸Frederick Herzberg, Work and the Nature of Man (Cleveland: The World Publishing Company, 1966), p. ix.



A Frame of Reference

As the manager proceeds in the examination of his assumptions concerning the nature of man, it would appear desirable for him to initially establish a foundation for diagnosis. Certain skills are necessary for this approach, which may or may not be pertinent to other problem solving endeavours. This would appear in a similar vein to a differentiation in approaching a problem concerning a tactical approach versus a strategical approach.

Robert L. Katz suggests that the effective manager depends on three basic personal skills: technical, human, and conceptual.⁹ What is salient for the administrator (used here to mean the same as a manager) is to primarily stress the skill which will lead to the best solution to the problem of analysis. The technical, human, and conceptual skills are defined respectively as:

1. Technical skills are those required to accomplish the mechanics of the particular job for which the manager is responsible.
2. Human skills are those necessary in working with others to be an effective group member and to be able to build co-operative effort within the team being led.

⁹Robert L. Katz, "Skills of an Effective Administrator," Harvard Business Review, XXXIII, No. 1. (January-February, 1955), p. 42.

3. Conceptual skills are those required to recognize the interrelationship of the various factors involved in a situation, which will lead the manager to take that action which achieves the maximum good for the total organization.¹⁰

For the purpose of examination in this chapter, the main concentration for diagnosis will rely on the conceptual skill requirements. The evolution of the conception of man and his present day understood range of motives is the key for designing any strategy, motivational or otherwise. Once we have reached this stage in development of basic assumptions, appropriate tactics can be evaluated for use.

Now that it has been established that the conceptual skill level will be the tool desirable for investigation, a second framework for reference will aid in the inquiry. When probing the basic managerial assumptions about man, it will be helpful to identify the philosophies of management from which they developed.

Herzberg broadly divides them into three general theories which can be summarized as follows:

1. The organizational theorist considers that human needs are either so irrational or so varied and amenable to certain situations that the chief function of personnel management is to be as practical as the situation demands. If jobs are

¹⁰Ibid.

organized in a proper fashion, he reasons, the products will be the most efficient job structure, and the most desirable job attitudes will follow as a matter of logic.

2. The industrial engineer believes that man is mechanistically oriented and economically motivated and his needs are best met by attaching the individual to the most efficient work process. The aim of personnel management therefore should be to design the most appropriate incentive system and to utilize the specific working conditions in a way that facilitates the most effective use of the human machine. By structuring jobs in a fashion that leads to the most efficient operation, the engineer considers that he can obtain the optimal organization of work and the right work attitudes.
3. The behavioral scientist centers on group sentiments, attitudes of individual employees, and the organization's social and psychological climate. According to his argument, he emphasizes one or more needs. His approach to personnel management generally emphasizes some form of human relations training and an organization climate which he believes to be fitting to human values. He believes that proper attitudes will lead to efficient job

and organizational structure.¹¹

The objective of this just completed summary is not to assert value judgments on the propriety of one philosophy versus another, but only to recognize the truly significant realities of the different schools of thoughts in which the assumptions about to be inspected have arisen. To do otherwise would be to work in a vacuum of idle intellectual inquisitiveness.

Some Historical Perspectives

Before discussing the main convergence of present day assumptions on the nature of man, a very brief diversion appears appropriate. No pretext is made for an all inclusive account, only a few cursory observations are included as a basis for review in retrospect.

The industrial revolution, according to James A.C. Brown, gave birth to a new civilization.¹² Prior to the industrial revolution, society had been predominantly characterized by an agricultural based economy. The industrial revolution replaced small villages with cities; replaced skilled craftsmen with unskilled labour; replaced the small home industry with the large factory; replaced the then prevalent concept of co-operation with competition; all this leading to a totally different ideology from that which had prevailed during

¹¹ Herzberg, "One More Time," p. 58.

¹² James A.C. Brown, The Social Psychology of Industry (Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Book, Ltd., 1954), p. 41.

the middle ages.¹³ Of utmost critical importance is the shift in production from the home to a completely separate unit--the factory--where machinery was concentrated and labor employed. Previously production functions were not distinguished from social functions; now they were.¹⁴ No longer was the family unit the basic production organization it had been in the middle ages.

Four main basic philosophies arose from which the behavior of managers emerged:

1. First was the doctrine of Adam Smith, as formulated in The Wealth of Nations. Self-interest was the best guide to personal and social policy. Under the prod of self-interest, each individual would try to create and produce as much as possible.
2. A second strand was contributed by Malthus. Population tended to increase much more rapidly than the food supply--at a geometric as compared to an arithmetic ratio. The workingman was thus foredoomed to live close to a subsistence level.
3. Ricardo formulated a third major thesis with his proposal on the iron law of wages: wages could never be more than that amount required to yield subsistence.
4. Lastly, Darwin's discoveries about the struggle for

¹³Ibid.

¹⁴Joseph L. Massie, Essentials of Management (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1964), p. 12.

survival in nature were used as a basis for proposing that, as in nature so with man, only the fittest survived. It followed that employers and industrialists had to take very little responsibility for improving the living conditions of their workers.¹⁵

Such were the major formulations in a simplified summarized form up to the late 1800's and leading to the twentieth century.

Herzberg makes an extremely useful analysis when he comments as follows:

Initially, the industrial development in the economy encompassed two fundamental principles; the way goods are produced and the measure of successful production. The manner in which goods were manufactured created a shift in the man-tool relationship, because the tools of man became the important member of the team and the man became the tool's helper. As the tool grew to factory proportions, the function of man was curtailed and the work became an interchangeable specialized instrument, so that the tool took over the direction and co-ordination of the task.¹⁶

Industry is now recognized as the dominating institution in our society and if it is to be successful in the effective use of human beings; it must treat them in terms of their complete nature, rather than in terms of those characteristics

¹⁵ Benjamin M. Selekman, A Moral Philosophy for Management (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1959), pp. 8-11.

¹⁶ Herzberg, Work and the Nature of Man, pp. 24-25.

that appear suitable to industry.¹⁷

It is in this light that an inquiry can now be made into the convergence of present day assumptions on the nature of man.

Present Day Assumptions on the Nature of Man

One major assumption every manager should be exposed to in his choice of a motivational strategy is that of the "rational-economic" man. The economic doctrines of Adam Smith, mentioned in this chapter's subheading under historical perspectives, have had a major input into this assumption on the nature of man.

It is also valid to relate the philosophy of hedonism¹⁸ with this concept of man. Vroom goes so far as to state that most contemporary conceptions of motivation find their origin in the principle of hedonism.¹⁹

Edgar H. Schein summarizes the main tenets of the rational-economic man as:

1. Man is mainly motivated by economic incentives and will do whatever rewards him with the largest monetary gain.
2. Since economic incentives are under the purview

¹⁷Ibid., p. 170.

¹⁸The central assumption of hedonism is that behavior is directed toward pleasure and away from pain. In all situations people would select from alternative possibilities the course of action which they think will maximize their pleasure and minimize their pain.

¹⁹Vroom, Work and Motivation, p. 9.

of the organization, man is primarily a silent agent to be manipulated, motivated, and directed by the organization.

3. Man's feelings are primarily irrational and must be prevented from interfering with his rational reasoning of self-interest.
4. Organizations can and must be laid out in such a manner to neutralize and control man's feelings and therefore his unpredictable characteristics.²⁰

Closely allied to Schein's description is the picture presented by William F. Whyte when he summarizes the assumptions underlying management controls such as motion study and quality control incentive systems:

1. Man is a rational animal concerned with maximizing his economic gains.
2. Men, like machines, can be treated in a standardized fashion.
3. Machines and workers are alike in that they are both normally passive agents who must be stimulated by management in order to go into action.
4. Each individual responds to economic incentives as an isolated individual.²¹

These two listings encompass the concept of man, the

²⁰Edgar H. Schein, Organizational Psychology (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965), p. 48.

²¹William F. Whyte, Money and Motivation (New York: Harper & Brothers, Publishers, 1955), pp. 2-3.

rational-economic creature. It is proper to reiterate at this point that it is not the intention of this effort to make value judgments on the main body of present assumptions, but only to explicitly elaborate as to what they are. The individual manager in constructing his philosophy of management based on his cosmology on the nature of man; then selecting his strategy for motivating people, makes his own value judgments. To suggest more than a framework for diagnosis unsupported by the multitudinous contingencies of any particular situation can only be a flagrant presumptuous anomaly.

A second principal field of assumptions which has evolved at the present time is that concerning "social man." The main thrust toward the initial postulation of this set of assumptions can be traced back to the origin of the human relations movement in the 1930's (Elton Mayo, director of the Hawthorne Experiment, is mainly responsible for these postulations).²²

Mayo developed a quite different set of assumptions from those concerning rational-economic man. Briefly they state:

1. Man is basically motivated by social needs and obtains his basic sense of identity through relationships with others.
2. As a result of the industrial revolution and the rationalization of work, meaning has gone out of

²²Knowles and Saxberg, "Human Relations and the Nature of Man," p. 174.

work itself and must therefore be sought in the social relationships on the job.

3. Man is more responsive to the social forces of management.
4. Man is responsive to management to the extent that a supervisor can meet a subordinate's social needs and needs for acceptance.²³

A third major field of assumptions has its roots in the notion of "self-actualizing" man. The principal factors significant are:

1. Even the lowliest untalented man seeks self-actualization, a sense of meaning and accomplishment in his work, if his other needs are more or less fulfilled.
2. Man is and needs to be mature on the job.
3. Man is primarily self-motivated and self-controlled; externally imposed incentives and controls are likely to threaten the person and reduce him to a less mature adjustment.
4. There is no inherent conflict between self-actualization and more effective organizational performance.²⁴

Ohmann classifies self-actualization in terms of the Judaeo-Christian culture when he states:

²³Schein, Organizational Psychology, p. 50.

²⁴Ibid., p. 57.

As far as I can tell, our Judaeo-Christian culture is the only view of history which assumes that there is some meaning, direction, and ultimate purpose in life's procession, and that each individual is an integral and unique part of such purpose. Right or wrong, these assumptions are deeply imbedded in our culture and cannot be disregarded without penalty.²⁵

The fourth notable area of assumptions faced by the manager as he chooses his motivational strategy is a combination of factors which implies that the nature of man is more complex than those assumptions included in rational-economic, social, or self-actualizing man. The major beliefs of "complex" man are recapitulated as:

1. Man is not only complex, but also highly variable.
2. Man is capable of learning new motives through his organizational experiences.
3. Man's motives in different organizations or different subparts of the same organization may be different.
4. Man can become productively involved with organizations on the basis of many different kinds of motives.
5. Man can respond to many different kinds of managerial strategies, depending on his own motives and abilities and the nature of the task.²⁶

Maslow in his work, Eupsychian Management, (pages 17-33)

²⁵Ohmann, "Search for a Managerial Philosophy,"
p. 47.

²⁶Schein, Organizational Psychology, p. 60.

lists thirty three assumptions which underlie his policy of Eupsychian Management. Many are already referred to in the four major body of assumptions in this chapter, but some go beyond the limitations of explicit pronouncements. A manager faces an arduous challenge as he sifts through the "assumption jungle" to identify what assumptions will underwrite his strategy of motivation.

Douglas McGregor, probably one of the most respected spokesmen for explicit examination of managerial assumptions, proposed his now classical theories called Theory X and Theory Y. No manager in his search for guiding assumptions could do justice to a comprehensive review without an inspection of McGregor's postulates.

Theory X, which closely aligns itself with the assumptions of rational-economic man is basically as follows:

1. The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he can.
2. Because of this human characteristic of dislike of work most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives.
3. The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, wants security above all.²⁷

²⁷McGregor, The Human Side of Enterprise, pp. 33-34.



Theory Y states a set of assumptions on the other end of the spectrum:

1. The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play and rest.
2. External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about effort toward organizational objectives. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed.
3. Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement.
4. The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but to seek responsibility.
5. The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organization problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.
6. Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized.²⁸

McGregor's intention was not to have management choose up sides between Theory X and Theory Y, but rather to point out the realization that theory is important, and to urge management

²⁸Ibid., pp. 47-48.



to examine explicitly its assumptions.²⁹

This observation is of paramount importance, as it is the whole substance of this thesis. Only by diagnosis of underlying assumptions on the nature of man, tested against reality, can a manager arrive at sound motivational methodology. A real difficulty in the interpretation of Theory X and Theory Y is that people have read them to be principles in themselves and not assumptions to be tested against reality.

This has been a long and complicated chapter: review and summarization are required for clarification. The first aim of the chapter was to emphasize the "why" of managerial assumptions; the second desire was to set a proper frame of reference for examining the assumptions; subsequently, a very brief historical review was attempted to set the stage for the latter part of the chapter on the main present day assumptions on the nature of man.

Preparation is now complete for an inquiry into the basic motivators and their relationship to the assumptions just discussed. By doing this, the link in the framework can be closed: the manager will have a method for determining the foundation for his motivational methodology.

²⁹Ibid., p. 246.

CHAPTER III

UNDERSTANDING THE MAINSPRINGS OF MOTIVATION

"If I kick my dog (from the front or the back), he will move. And when I want him to move again, what must I do? I must kick him again. Similarly, I can charge a man's battery, and then recharge it, and recharge it again. But it is only when he has his own generator that we talk about motivation. He then needs no outside stimulation. He wants to do it."--Herzberg¹

A Precursor to the Need Hierarchy Theory

To be continually kicked time after time in one part of the body or for that matter in various sections of the body does not have a particular attractive appeal to any man. Thinking of motivation in that dismal perspective places emphasis on a very negatively oriented approach.

On the other hand, viewing the motivating process as a means by which the spark comes from within the employee and is sustained by him in the environment provided, places the whole process in a very different light. Now the attention shifts to needs (motives) within the individual which drive him toward

¹Herzberg, "One More Time," p. 55.

ion in fulfillment of those needs, whatever they may be.

To reiterate and re-examine an earlier premise of this paper, now the demand is placed on the manager for high diagnostic skill in order to identify and activate employee's drives fruitfully toward task performance.² The environmental circumstances or organizational climate, here, take on added significance for it is within them that the need is activated.

A second reiteration would be to again point out the transactional character of the interchange between the employee (within him the needs originate) and the manager (the organizational climate for development of the need seeking function is within his purview of responsibility).

A very brief interjection at this time would be to consider what effect a motivational strategy based solely on the assumption of rational-economic man would have on an employee seeking fulfillment of needs emanating from social motives. It is not presumptuous to suggest that only congruency could develop.

Returning to the immediate task at hand, needs are generally classified into two main categories:

1. Primary or basic physiological needs are those related directly to the basic physiology of the human body. Examples would include considerations such as air to breath, thirst, hunger, sleep, and

²Keith Davis, Human Relations at Work: The Dynamics of Organizational Behavior (3rd ed.; New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1967), p. 22.

acceptable temperature or humidity. They are very closely associated with preservation and survival of the species.

2. Secondary needs are those learned needs associated with the non-physical body demands. Examples would be self-esteem, sense of duty, love, self-respect, or ego-enhancement.³

In examining these two lists it would appear that the primary needs would have a more concrete base than the secondary needs, which have a definite nebulous overtone. It would appear natural that management, also, could more easily recognize the primary needs and direct attention to fulfilling them. In actuality, though, to recognize only the primary needs to the exclusion of secondary needs is escaping the reality of the totality of the situation. Granted, to list only the fundamental physiological needs by themselves, one could arrive at almost any number depending on the scope of definition.

In an attempt to make sense out of this extremely complex situation, Abraham H. Maslow in 1954 in his book, Motivation and Personality proposed a theory in which he ordered the different needs in a hierarchical arrangement of ascendancy. This need hierarchy concept is accorded wide recognition as an appropriate point of departure in the field of motivation. This is attested to by its almost universal utilization in books, articles, and works on motivation. It brought order and a rather

³Massie, Essentials of Management, p. 102.

imple classification to a heterogenous span of thought, and has survived to the present day as a firm foundation underlying the diversity of need arrangements.

Maslow, himself, made no pretentious claims for his presentation when he stated:

. . . . Our classification of basic needs is in part an attempt to account for this unity behind the apparent diversity from culture to culture. No claim is made yet that it is ultimate or universal for all cultures. The claim is made only that it is relatively more ultimate, more universal, more basic than the superficial conscious desires, and makes a closer approach to common human characteristics. Basic needs are more common human than superficial desires or behaviours.⁴

It is in this context that the need hierarchy is used as a base for understanding and making sense out of motivation. Subsequently in this chapter various managerial strategies, with basic underlying assumptions on the nature of man, will be related to the hierarchy to complete the understanding strived for.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Most psychologists are in agreement that human behavior is not completely disorganized or without motivational patterns of some sort.⁵ The breakdown of basic needs into primary and secondary needs was a first approximation at understanding observable patterns.

⁴ Abraham H. Maslow, Motivation and Personality (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, Inc., 1954), p. 102.

⁵ Edwin B. Flippo, Management: A Behavioral Approach (Boston: Allyn and Bacon Inc., 1966), p. 69.

Further scrutinizing the examples furnished, another pattern for classification appears acceptable. Edwin B. Flippo classifies all the primary and secondary needs into three prime categories: physiological, social, and egoistic (these will be defined in detail in explaining the need hierarchy itself).⁶ This, again, is helpful but with the great diversity of individual differences, the very difficult task remaining is the establishment of some type of configuration to order the different needs. By setting a five-level order of priority for the human needs Maslow filled this void.

The first level constructed by Maslow consisted of a base in which he included the physiological needs. They are the ones which are the most prepotent of all needs.⁷ These would have to be taken as the starting point for motivational theory. For if a man does not have air to breath or bread to eat to satisfy his most primitive needs, and is living in an extreme fashion, it is most likely that the major motivators would be the physiological needs rather than any other social or egoistic needs. But once these needs are fulfilled Maslow describes what transpires as an explanation for moving to a second level in the need hierarchy:

. . . . The physiological needs, along with their partial goals, when chronically gratified cease to exist as active determinants of organizers of behavior. They now exist only in a potential

⁶Ibid.

⁷Maslow, Motivation and Personality, p. 82.

fashion in the sense that they may emerge again to dominate the organism if they are thwarted. But a want that is satisfied is no longer a want. The organism is dominated and its behavior organized only by unsatisfied needs. If hunger is satisfied, it becomes unimportant in the current dynamics of the individual.⁸

This points out that if the real interest is in what actually motivates a person, and not in what has in the past, will in the future, or could motivate another time, then a satisfied need is not a motivator of behavior.

The physiological needs being rather well satisfied, there then arises a new set of needs roughly classified as the safety needs.⁹ Now a person would be motivated by needs such as protection from harm, job tenure and security, threats of various kinds, and deprivation of matters which are associated with his physical well being. As soon as these needs are satisfied they are no longer motivators and movement is toward the next level of needs in the hierarchy.

The third level of needs are categorized as the social needs in which the individual seeks such things as affection, love, belongingness, association and acceptance by one's fellows.¹⁰ Maslow believed that the non-fulfillment of needs at this level in the hierarchy led to most cases of maladjustment and even more severe psychopathology.¹¹ The cycle has the

⁸Ibid., p. 84.

⁹Ibid.

¹⁰Ibid., p. 89.

¹¹Ibid.

same familiar pattern at this level as it did in the previous two levels: once the needs are relatively met the person moves on to a new frontier of demands.

The fourth level of the hierarchy is described by Maslow in the following manner:

All people in our society (with a few pathological exceptions) have a need or desire for a stable, firmly based, usually high evaluation of themselves, for self-respect, or self-esteem, and for the esteem of others. These needs may therefore be classified into two subsidiary sets. These are, first, the desire for strength, for achievement, for adequacy, for mastery and competence, for confidence in the face of the world, and for independence and freedom. Second, we have what we may call desire for reputation or prestige (defining it as respect or esteem from other people), status, dominance, recognition, attention, importance, or appreciation.¹²

Frustration at this level of esteem and self-respect needs can only lead to feelings of helplessness, inferiority, or worst still weakness in the individual.

Lastly, at the apex of the need hierarchy even if all other needs have been satisfied or satiated, there is one other need that can be expected to develop. Unless a man is doing what he is capable of doing, being what he can be, or for that matter, what he feels he must be, problems can develop: self-actualization is the name Maslow attached to this final plane of needs.¹³

As a manager works with the hierarchy of needs in affecting his motivational strategy, there are some important

¹²Ibid., p. 90.

¹³Ibid., p. 91.

considerations he should digest:

1. A manager should not attach an overly heavy rigidity to the hierarchy overall or at any particular level.
2. Probably at no level is there complete satiation of any need, but more properly there is a decreasing percentage of fulfillment in the ascendancy of the hierarchy.
3. The greater the gratification of needs at any level of satisfaction the less significant the potency of that need level as a motivational technique.
4. The consciousness or unconsciousness of the needs is hard to measure, but in the average person we could expect a greater level of consciousness at the lower levels of the hierarchy.
5. A manager should not view the need hierarchy as proposing a singular connotation of motivated behavior: more likely behavior is multimotivated. In other words, what a manager must realize is that one or more of the basic needs are at any time determining a person's behavior.
6. A manager can expect or predict elaboration of needs at any level or below if a person is contained in his movement toward the pinnacle of the need hierarchy.¹⁴

¹⁴Ibid., pp. 80-106.



Harold J. Leavitt sums up briefly the implications of the need hierarchy theory for management:

. . . . One implication is that when management tries to reward or punish, it had better reward or punish the needs that are operational and not those above or below that operational level. If I feel psychologically safe about my physical needs, threats or rewards will have effects different from those produced by the same threats or rewards in someone who is operating primarily at the level of physical safety. Conversely, if my next meal is the problem that is real to me, don't expect me to be diverted with offers of promotion or threats to my status.

It has been suggested, in fact, that the general level of operational needs in a society changes as the society develops and that managers often lag behind that development in their methods of management. They may thus use incentives or threats that would have worked in the less developed America of a hundred years ago, but are as meaningless in our present affluent society as a penny is to today's teenagers. Our society, in other words, is probably at a stage in which social or egoistic needs are more operational for most of us than physical or safety needs.¹⁵

The end result of this description would once again return us to the paramountness of sound diagnosis, having as a foundation valid assumptions on the nature of man in any present day culture or society. For if a managerial strategy is rooted in a plethora of invalid assumptions, only ineffectual diagnosis and ineffectual motivational methodology can emerge. A proper analogy would be the use of an obsolete computer in a management information system, when in fact, a high speed computer is necessary to meet the requirements for a real time system.

Having now established some understanding of basic

¹⁵Harold J. Leavitt, Managerial Psychology (2nd ed.; Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1964), pp. 26-27.

needs, the effort shifts to a brief consideration of the current theories on motives and their relationship to Maslow's need hierarchy.

Current Theories on Motives of People and Their
Relationship to the Need Hierarchy¹⁶

Robert W. White's use of the competence motive, as a method of explaining the mainspring of motivation, was largely postulated as a reconsideration or reinterpretation of what he believed was an oversimplification by Freudian theory of an explanation to account for human behavior.¹⁷ The competence motive addresses the point that human beings have a desire for mastery over their environment, whether it be physical or social. This motive, then, drives man to make things happen rather than to assume a passive state.¹⁸ To compare the competence motive with the need hierarchy it can be seen that the connection is at the level of self-fulfillment or self-actualization. This is the level at which an individual has control over his environment. A link can also be made with the fourth level of the hierarchy; namely, the self-respect level where the individual does have control.

A second major current theory on motives was postulated

¹⁶This section of the paper draws heavily on the excellent and inclusive review of the important and current theories on motives in Saul Gellerman's book, Motivation and Productivity (New York: American Management Association, Inc., 1963), Chapters 10-14.

¹⁷Gellerman, Motivation and Productivity, p. 117.

¹⁸Ibid., p. 111.

by Stanley Schachter in his book, The Psychology of Affiliation, (1959). Schachter's premise was that the affiliation motive is present in most workers and the reasons for it are extremely complex. The most important element in the theory could be solely the reassuring effect of sharing an opinion.¹⁹ The key alignment of the affiliation motive finds itself at the third level of priority in the need hierarchy: at the level of the social needs.

The achievement motive addressed by David C. McClelland in the book, The Achieving Society, (1961), has its root in the need to optimize one's performance and to attain a standard of excellence in any endeavor.²⁰ A comparison of this concept with the need hierarchy would once again find a similarity at the higher levels of the hierarchy: primarily at the levels of self-esteem and self-actualization.

Gellerman, himself, adds the prestige and security motives as being quite prevalent in society within certain individuals.²¹ The explanation of the interconnection with the need hierarchy should be self-evident: the second plane of safety needs and the fourth level of self-respect.

A last area for consideration is the one associated with the prevalent field referred to as the economic motive. The

¹⁹Ibid., pp. 115-121.

²⁰David C. McClelland, "Money as a Motivator: Some Research Insights," The McKinsey Quarterly, The Fall, (1967), p. 12.

²¹Gellerman, Motivation and Productivity, pp. 150-159.

major present day investigative work in this area has been done by William F. Whyte as expounded in his book, Money and Motivation, (1955). A major finding in this work was the fact that money becomes quickly entangled with a lot of other motives that have little or very little to do with money. The ultimate effect of money can be difficult to identify in its pervasive character.²² Of course, a readily identifiable level in the need hierarchy to attach the economic motive to would most probably be the physiological or safety needs; although, for some people it could permeate the whole hierarchy in its entirety.

The importance of this discussion has been to show that the need hierarchy of Maslow is appropriate to utilize as related to the preponderance of current day expositions on the motives of individuals. The competence, economic, prestige, security, achievement, and affiliation motives all can be interpreted and viably applied to the basic need hierarchy.

With this link established, the main managerial strategies can be discussed and the basic assumptions and motivators can be connected to them.

Managerial Strategies and Their Bond to the Basic Assumptions and Motivators

Before discussing a series of managerial strategies, it will be useful to reconstruct again what is meant when using the term "managerial strategies". A managerial strategy is a

²²Ibid., p. 63.

deliberately planned and consciously selected style of managing people (related to the work situation). The distinction is made from those strategies or styles which are largely the outcome of trial-and-error adjustment.²³ Therefore, unconscious and unplanned strategies and their incumbent tactics are automatically excluded from this perusal.

Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton in their book, The Managerial Grid, provide us with an excellent descriptive vehicle for investigating the applicability of the framework built in this work and its practicality.

Their grid depicts a series of styles evolving from two main concerns: a concern for people and a concern for production. By different combinations of these two concerns over a scale of one to nine on two axis (one horizontal and one vertical) it is possible to concoct eighty one permutations within a two dimensional design.²⁴

For the purpose of discussion three main segments of the grid are chosen: a production oriented strategy, a people oriented strategy, and a combined production-people oriented strategy.

In the first instance as a manager arrives at his choice of strategy for motivating people in the organization, he is limited and governed by his previously selected managerial style strategy. If the manager embraces a solely production

²³McGregor, The Professional Manager, p. 70.

²⁴Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton, The Managerial Grid (Houston: Gulf Publishing Company, 1964), pp. 8-9.

oriented style he is making certain assumptions on how he should function in the organization. At the extreme he assumes a position such as:

A manager has a position of authority in the hierarchy and he knows it. He feels his responsibilities are to plan, direct, and control the actions of his subordinates in whatever way is necessary to reach the production objectives of the enterprise. The boss plans, subordinates execute. They carry out the various plans, directions and schedules placed upon them. The aim under this approach is to get production! Schedules are to be met! People are expected to do what they are told to do--no more, no less!²⁵

The direct parallel between this description and the job-centered supervision examined by Rensis Likert is evident. The job centered supervisor sees his responsibility in a manner such that the following must occur:

1. Simplify the task into component parts.
2. Develop for the worker the best way to complete the work.
3. Use incentives for a group or individual in a piece rate form.
4. Train the workers in one best specified way to do the task.
5. Match called for aptitudes and skills to the task.
6. Have appropriate supervision to control the performance of task, using the best way specified, at the timed rate.²⁶

²⁵Ibid., p. 19.

²⁶Rensis Likert, New Patterns of Management (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1961), p. 6

Now, surveying the managerial strategy employed in the production oriented strategy, what can be discovered? Turning first to the assumptions on the nature of man implicit in the above, it can be seen that the underlying assumptions, most closely approximated, are those of rational-economic man as previously described by Schein and Whyte. Furthermore, there is an analogy to Theory X as set forth by McGregor. The critical importance, of course, is what type of motivators are applied based on these assumptions. It can only follow that the application is at the bottom of the need hierarchy. The manager will not and cannot exercise higher need motivators as they are incongruent with the assumptions underlying his managerial style. There is no rationale whatsoever for using motivators to meet self-actualization, self-esteem, self-respect or belonging needs, even if they are operational because they are not present anywhere in the schema developed, based on the assumptions made by the manager. This is the framework this paper has been striving to achieve: the transactional relation between the basic needs of man, the managerial style, and the manager's motivational strategy. In this situation, due to the assumptions made, the manager is boxed in on extrinsic rewards only afforded at the lower need level. The result being that the workers who, in fact, have or desire to have higher operational needs satisfied must go wanting and become frustrated. In this environment there is just no opportunity for a challenging job which allows a feeling of achievement, growth, advancement, or responsibility.

The managerial strategy calls for following the master plan: high production at all and any cost is the sole criterion for effectiveness. Is there a recognition that the assumptions of rational-economic man are not valid or that they might have changed?

Gellerman portrays the working force as follows:

With increased education and economic independence come new needs, which cannot be easily satisfied since they tend to be rather esoteric. First, there is a heightened need for an understanding of how one's job fits into the broader context of the organization and even society at large. It is not enough to tell an educated worker what to do; he must also be told why. Second, there is a need for variety and growth. A job that loses its challenge through familiarity, and does not lead to newer challenges, will either grind the educated man's zeal down to zero or, more likely, be abandoned for a better job.²⁷

Gellerman states further:

But all too often management puts the blame on its people for their failure to implement policies which may very well have put them at cross purposes with management. This simply sets up a useless cycle of pressure and resistance. The real fault lies with unexamined assumptions that are implicit in the policies. Simply because a policy may be objectively fair or logical is no guarantee that other people will see it the same way.²⁸

A second primary strategy to investigate is that of a people oriented strategy. Blake and Mouton characterize it as follows:

This managerial style, in other words, focuses on how to arrange conditions of work which will

²⁷Gellerman, The Management of Human Relations, p. 22.

²⁸Gellerman, Motivation and Productivity, p. 85.

permit people to fit them with comfort, ease, and security. Under this set of assumptions it is felt that organizational demands for production often are harsh, overdemanding and unnecessary. When his people become disturbed the manager with a people orientation also becomes disturbed. To counter-balance the demands of the organization, the manager can lighten work conditions by emphasizing the positive aspects of work, or by giving a bonus of some sort. Informal conversation, a joke, an understanding pat on the back, a smile, coffee together--all help the task to pass a little easier and to make life a little more enjoyable.²⁹

What is revealed by this type of strategy? The basic assumptions on the nature of man substantiating the adoption of this strategy have their basis in the elements of social man. The assumptions are that man is motivated not by the meaning of the task, but by social relationships on the job. Work in itself is to provide no meaning for an employee: man is only responsive to the social forces in the work environment and not to incentive and controls of management.

The basic needs to be met employing this strategy, with its underlying assumptions, can be found operating at the third level of the need hierarchy and possibly below. Automatically excluded from consideration are needs like self-fulfillment, self-respect or self-esteem, arising from the job itself. For the assumptions constructed have a built in structural rigidity that work itself cannot be a rewarding experience. The manager once again is boxed in to the extent that production is only a by-product of where his managerial strategy is directed. The

²⁹Blake and Mouton, The Managerial Grid, p. 58.

affiliative motive has priority billing under this set of assumptions and motivational strategy is limited to a direction of activity only peripheral to the demands of the task within the organization.

Herzberg bases his plea for job enrichment in the following terms:

The argument for job enrichment can be summed up quite simply: If you have someone on a job, use him. If you can't use him on the job, get rid of him, either via automation or by selecting someone with lesser ability. If you can't use him and you can't get rid of him, you will have a motivation problem.³⁰

Actually, much of the time devoted to this type of motivation methodology (social oriented) could have a demotivating effect in the sense that many employees would behave in ways which would do nothing but thwart the organization goals.

The third major strategy to investigate is the people-production oriented approach. This is described in the following manner:

This orientation views the integration of people into work from a different perspective than other approaches. In contrast with the production orientation, the solution for a given problem is not necessarily defined by the boss' authority. This approach is oriented toward discovering the best and most effective solution in a given situation, not the one defined by tradition, etc. By utilizing both the mental and executive skills of people this approach aims at the highest attainable level of production. This highest level is only possible through work situations that meet needs of people. Sociability for the sake of togetherness, status based on aspects unrelated to work or power exercised for its own sake, or out of frustration,

³⁰ Herzberg, "One More Time," p. 62.

are not viewed as mature needs. Rather, accomplishment and contribution are seen as the critical aspect of organization, performance and individual motivation. When one is met, the other is gratified automatically.³¹

The underlying assumptions on the nature of man in this approach align themselves with such basic assumptions as self-actualizing man, complex man, and Theory Y. What is probably most important here is that there is no inherent conflict between man and work. This opens up a whole wide range of possibilities for the manager in the work situation. His motivational methodology can be exercised to include the whole range of motives operational at work as well as the whole range of motivators required to deal with the complete hierarchy of needs. No longer is the manager faced with the dilemma of being limited by a possible sub-optimal set of assumptions on the nature of man. Of course the manager has not been relieved of the difficult diagnostic requirement he has faced all along, but now his diagnosis can be followed by the use of a variety of motivators available and used in consonance with his managerial strategy and assumptions.

This approach would approximate the Likert employee-centered style of supervisory strategy, which led to his postulation of a new theory of management based on an integration principle.³²

Hopefully, the framework for managing the multiple

³¹Blake and Mouton, The Managerial Grid, pp. 142-143.

³²Likert, New Patterns of Management, p. 97.

factors that influence the choice and use of various managerial strategies in the application of motivational methodology in an organization has now been developed in this work. The framework, as has been pointed out, starts with the basic assumptions on the nature of man, uses an ordered hierarchy of needs as the basis for employee's needs, relates current motives to the need hierarchy, and shows how and why motivational strategies develop which determine, in turn, the scope of motivational methodology within the framework.

Chapter Four, then, will use a case study as a further explanation of the framework and its application in a real life situation.

Perhaps it is appropriate in concluding this chapter to reiterate the need for the framework just discussed. The answer seems to rest on the fact that a single system or sets of systems are not within grasp at this point in time. There is no one formula to neatly manipulate the wide variety of variables within. Dubin sums it up concisely when he states:

The motivation systems are not the same for all kinds of work organizations. The motivational patterns for a clergyman in a church organization will differ markedly from those of an accountant in a business firm. Furthermore, the motivational patterns of the United States Steel Corporation will differ, in some respects, from those in the General Motors Corporation. Particular systems of motivation have some characteristics that are unique for each work organization.³³

³³Dubin, Human Relations in Administration, p. 53.

CHAPTER IV

AN APPLICATION OF THE PROPOSED MOTIVATIONAL FRAMEWORK: A CASE STUDY

"Managerial climate pervades the entire organization. . . . and emphasizes those aspects . . . that depend primarily upon management's philosophies about man's nature. . . ."--Tagiuri¹

The Harwood Manufacturing Company²

The Harwood Manufacturing Company (hereafter referred to as Harwood) was formed just prior to the turn of the twentieth century as a family concern. Its primary production function was in the manufacturing of garments (mainly pajamas). Originally founded by a self-made man, in the 1930's the management of the company was passed on to his two sons (one a trained engineer, the other a trained psychologist).³

¹Renato Tagiuri, "Executive Climate," in Organizational Climate: Explorations of a Concept, ed. by Renato Tagiuri and George H. Litwin (Boston: Division of Research, Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration, 1968), p. 226.

²This chapter of the paper is based on an actual organizational study documented by Alfred J. Marrow, David G. Myers, and Stanley E. Seashore in Management by Participation (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1967).

³Alfred J. Marrow, "The Harwood Organization," in Management by Participation, ed. by Alfred J. Marrow, David G. Myers, and Stanley E. Seashore (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1967), p. 24.



Whereas the original founder was characterized as a personable man and benevolent manager, who had limited technical knowledge; under his two sons the company shifted to a philosophy of applying scientific knowledge in the application of managerial skills. The end result to be achieved was to bring about the satisfaction of relationships among employees and a more active and willing co-operation in the daily work environment.⁴

In 1939 the company was settled in the small town of Marion, Virginia where it has remained to the present time. Shortly after this relocation, Harwood was faced by the manpower shortage brought on by World War II. In attempting to employ older workers in the company, Harwood was faced with the traditional dislike of supervisors for the employment of older workers.⁵

Initially, this led Harwood to conduct a study of the immediate problem in an effort to overcome the resistance by changing the then prevalent attitudes; but this was only one limited study. During the period from 1939-1957 Harwood became involved with "Action Research"⁶ in all the following areas:

1. Reaction to a company-installed music system by

⁴Ibid.

⁵Ibid.

⁶"Action Research" is a term originally used by Kurt Lewin to mean being involved and learning from research first hand, rather than learning from research second hand and attempting to apply those principles learned. Change in attitudes, by first hand knowledge, was assumed to come from being involved.

employees.

2. The effect on rate changes by the power impact of cohesive groups.
3. The effect on non-conforming employees from group pressure.
4. Changing the typification toward older workers (referred to above).
5. Methods conducive to overcoming resistance to change.
6. Participation and its effect on turnover among learners.
7. The study of incentive systems and how they are affected by restriction of output.
8. The effect of group standards on the members of a group.
9. Morale change and its impact on productivity.
10. Profit sharing plans and factors influencing their success.
11. Decisions of groups and their eventual impact on output.
12. The influence of employee support in connection with major change proposals.
13. The impact on turnover amongst learners of fear of failure.

14. The reduction of turnover in employees learning new skills.⁷

Harwood, as can easily be seen, had been deeply involved in many areas of inquiry concerning the employee in the work environment. The question arises as to why Harwood was involved in such endeavours. The answer to this question rests in the philosophy of management of Harwood as expressed by Alfred J. Marrow, Chairman of the Board of Harwood-Weldon Corporation:

Since its early involvement with participative management in co-operation with behavioral scientists Harwood's management has been convinced that a job is done best when employees feel that their needs are considered in a way that sustains their self-respect and creates a sense of responsibility. As employees they "participate." They do not suffer the humiliation implied in the term "hired hands." They do not feel they are mere robots. But their "participation" is feasible and must be realistic in terms of the work to be done.⁸

These then are the basic managerial assumptions that underlie the Harwood philosophy. Relating it to the need for hierarchy, it is aimed at meeting the needs of employees at the levels of esteem and self-actualization. Even more basic than this thought, is the realization that the assumptions on the nature of man are ones which are directed to man being responsible, creative, interested, committed, self-directed and not opposed to work per se. It does not include the assumptions that workers are just an economic commodity or that workers can

⁷ Alfred J. Marrow, Making Management Human (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1957), pp. 42-223.

⁸ Marrow, "The Harwood Organization," p. 26.

believe in work solely a social compatibility with other workers.

Therefore, as Harwood proceeded in its development, made explicit its assumptions on the nature of man as a basis for motivational strategy. By diagnosis of motives and needs which were operational in their employees, it aimed at applying an appropriate managerial strategy. Harwood's approach is manifested in the euphonic term "participative management," but the real significance lies in the framework in which it was developed.

Marrow states that the management system employed at Harwood rests within the managerial strategy described by Likert as System Four.⁹ It is applied in Harwood as:

The management system assumes that employees are essential parts of an organization structure which has been built at great cost and necessarily maintained with the same attention and care given more tangible assets. It conceives of decision as a process, rather than a prerogative with the manager's responsibility consisting, not of himself deciding, but of making sure that the best possible decisions result. In this light, he focuses his efforts upon building an overlapping structure of cohesive, highly motivated, participative groups, coordinated by multiple memberships. Within this highly coordinated system, characterized by high mutual confidence and trust, communication is adequate, rapid and accurate. Because goals are established and decisions made with the participation of all those affected, objectives are comparatively closely aligned with the needs and interests of all members and all motivational forces push in the direction of obtaining the

⁹Rensis Likert in Chapter Fourteen of New Patterns of Management describes four management systems. They are System One (Exploitive Authoritative), System Two (Benevolent Authoritative), System Three (Consultative), and System Four (Participative Group).

established objectives. The closely knit system in addition permits superiors and subordinates like to exercise great control over the work situation. Employees at all levels are highly satisfied, but without complacency, and feel great reciprocal respect and trust. Performance is very good, costs, absence and turnover are low; and high quality is the natural concern of all.¹⁰

It is within this framework that Harwood was explicitly aiming for organizational excellence. Organizational excellence including the whole system: employers and employees. In the opinion of the organization members and researchers (members of the Survey Research Center of the University of Michigan's Institute for Social Research) Harwood in fact, approaching their goal.¹¹

Harwood Acquires Weldon Manufacturing Company

On January 1, 1962 Harwood acquired the Weldon Manufacturing Company, (hereafter referred to as Weldon), a long competitor, for financial motives.¹² It was the original intention of Harwood to continue Weldon as a separate independent

¹⁰David G. Bowers, "The New Organizational System," Management by Participation, ed. by Alfred J. Marrow, David G. Bowers, and Stanley E. Seashore (New York: Harper & Row Publishers, 1967), pp. 217-218.

¹¹David G. Bowers, "Weldon and Harwood Compared," in Management by Participation, ed. by Alfred J. Marrow, David G. Bowers, and Stanley E. Seashore (New York: Harper & Row Publishers, 1967), p. 57.

¹²Seymour A. Marrow, "Harwood Buys Weldon," in Management by Participation, ed. by Alfred J. Marrow, David G. Bowers, and Stanley E. Seashore (New York: Harper & Row Publishers, 1967), p. 5.

pany rather than to merge the two organizations.¹³

After the completed acquisition several problem areas came to the surface which had not been exposed in earlier investigations. These problems had not been resolved by Weldon internally and had in the end literally overwhelmed the Weldon centralized system of management. Chaos had resulted.¹⁴

The basic fact that had to be faced in the situation was that Harwood operated under and encouraged a participative system: Weldon was structured and operated under a traditional authority-obedience system likened to Likert's System One described earlier. Further, in assessing and comparing the two approaches, the management of Harwood could point not only to high satisfaction among their organization members but also to high profits and productivity: Weldon, on the other hand, was plagued by high costs, seized by low morale, with the end result being an inadequate return on investment.¹⁵

Seymour J. Marrow, President of Harwood, summed up the problem to be resolved as:

In my view at the time, the hardest challenge would be changing the practices of Weldon's managerial staff. They had to be developed into a team working together to achieve company goals. This meant for them a new way of accepting

¹³Ibid., p. 6.

¹⁴Ibid., p. 10.

¹⁵Alfred J. Marrow, David G. Bowers, and Stanley E. Ashore, Management by Participation, with a Foreword by L. J. Likert (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1967), pp. xiv-xv.

responsibility and exercising authority in a changed managerial framework.¹⁶

What is important in this regard is the recognition that the basis for the recovery of Weldon did not rest solely in structural or technical changes, (although these were certainly important), but rested in a whole new framework of managerial practices. Applying the strategy already suggested in this paper to this case, it can readily be seen that this would be a necessity before introducing any new or different strategy for motivating any members of the Weldon organization. A new climate and organizational environment was necessary for the ailing Weldon structure to rebound.

A Managerial Strategy for Changing Weldon Over to a Harwood Type System

As in the development of the framework proposed in this work, Harwood in shaping a new strategy for Weldon started at the level of basic assumptions. It must be remembered that Harwood brought to the situation its own basic assumptions on the nature of man in the work environment. Within this framework analysis of Weldon took place.¹⁷

A starting point for examination as put forth by Robert . Pearse was as follows:

While there no doubt were some people incapable

¹⁶ Marrow, "Harwood Buys Weldon," p. 15.

¹⁷ Alfred J. Marrow, "Planning the Changes," in Management by Participation, ed. by Alfred J. Marrow, David G. Powers, and Stanley E. Seashore (New York: Harper & Row, publishers, 1967), p. 111.

of doing their work or not willing to make the effort, it was assumed from the start that the fault lay rather in the system of values, assumptions, policies, and relationships that had grown up over the years. The view was that the Weldon people were caught up in an ineffective and rigid "pattern" or "system" of relationships. The "pattern" was internally consistent, evolved in response to past events and conditions, but ineffective and increasingly at odds with production goals.¹⁸

The importance of this aspect is critical in that only a few strategies can be developed from invalid assumptions. Weldon was not trying to impose an untested system, but one which had been proven successful in a similar type operation; it was substantiated and supplemented by a large quantity of research.

In order for the Weldon management to apply common motivational methods as used in Harwood, a common foundation of shared assumptions was a necessity. Policies to be infused into Weldon were in summary ones such as:

1. Fair and open dealings with employees in which encouragement was given to air problems at any time.
2. Emphasis was put on helping supervisors to solve human relation problems through conferences and role playing methods.
3. Employees were requested to voice their feelings where possible in the resolution of plant-wide problems affecting the whole working population.

¹⁸ Robert F. Pearse, "Work Relations on the Shop Floor," *Management by Participation*, ed. by Alfred J. Marrow, David Bowers, and Stanley E. Seashore (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1967), p. 111.

4. Working conditions both physical and non-physical were to be invested in to improve overall plant conditions.¹⁹

Of course, the final assessment of the value of a management strategy and philosophy would naturally have to be based on the output of the Weldon organization and its measured efficiency in using its allocated resources. The Weldon management had doubts concerning this new approach, but Alfred Marrow expresses why this was natural when he notes:

Doubts persist among managers in regard to the increasing number of planned change programs aimed toward less bureaucratic and more participative "open system" and adaptive structures. These doubts may arise from misconceptions based on past experience. They stem from an assumption that arbitrary boundaries exist between management systems, so that any two systems are mutually exclusive. The fact is, that there are gradations of practice, and it is primarily a matter of convenience in discussion to divide managerial approaches into the two opposites; the "authoritarian," based on centralized control and direction with strong individual leadership, and the "participative," based on shared responsibility and group collaboration.²⁰

Weldon's management, as has been pointed out, formerly was primarily directed in an authoritarian fashion, so it is not surprising that they fostered doubts on what was, for them, a radical shift in managerial style. Again noted is the

¹⁹Lester Coch and John R.P. French, Jr., "Overcoming Resistance to Change," in Psychology in Administration: A Research Orientation, ed. by Timothy W. Costello and Sheldon S. Kluckhohn (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963), 229.

²⁰Marrow, "The Harwood Organization," p. 31.



ount importance in the prerequisite shift in basic
ptions required to grant such freedoms as self-discipline,
nsibility and control to the employees. For if Weldon's
ational strategy, adapted from Harwood, was to be
ssful the underlying assumptions on the nature of man had to
-aligned, as well as the motivational tools.

Results of the Harwood-Weldon Corporation Experience

One expectation of the superimposed strategy of Harwood
ldon was that there would be within limits an increase in
yee motivation, satisfaction and positive feelings.²¹

was also a feeling that an increase in motivation,
faction and positive feelings might, in the long run, be
asis for survival of the firm or any firm for that matter.²²

Generally, in Weldon, it was found that the organization
eady to adapt to the new conditions imposed, but the change
ork behavior was not as pronounced as some would have
ected.²³

Bowers assessed the change as follows:

Global assessments of the Weldon management

²¹David G. Bowers and Stanley T. Seashore, "Employee
tudes, Motivations, and Satisfaction," in Management by
icipation, ed. by Alfred J. Marrow, David G. Bowers, and
ley T. Seashore (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers,
), p. 185.

²²Ibid., pp. 185-186.

²³Ibid., p. 200.

system, as seen by the participants and confirmed by the research observers, indicate that a radical transformation was accomplished. In all major areas of managerial activity, Weldon shifted from an authoritative (and in some ways an exploitative) system, to one based upon consultative values and principles.²⁴

This case exemplifies what this paper has been attempting to stress as the most critical element; that the assumptions a manager lives by can be revealed, if examined explicitly, as the fatal flaw in the whole managerial motivational process.²⁵ It is upon these basic assumptions that the ultimate judgment of success or failure will eventually rest.

This is not to underestimate the value of sound and correct subsequent diagnosis of operational needs, for they too have a transactional interconnection.

An excellent summary concerning implications of this case is provided by Bowers and Seashore:

The environment of the organization was substantially altered by the fact of take-over and the availability of ready capital; the ownership began early to advocate a "philosophy" --a set of guiding values and assumptions--that was distinctly different from that prevailing in the past; structural changes in the formal organization were introduced in ways incompatible with the old system and compatible with the

²⁴David G. Bowers, "The New Organizational System," in Management by Participation, ed. by Alfred J. Marrow, David G. Bowers, and Stanley E. Seashore (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1967), p. 223.

²⁵David G. Bowers and Stanley E. Seashore, "Implications for Managing Organizational Change," in Management by Participation, ed. by Alfred J. Marrow, David G. Bowers, and Stanley E. Seashore (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1967), p. 225.



proposed new philosophy: organizational processes were introduced that were unworkable under the old system and supportive of the new. In these several ways the Weldon organization began to take on a new form (e.g. more supervisors, an additional level in the hierarchy, additional staff roles, etc.), a new set of processes for sustaining organizational life (e.g. consultative procedures in decision making, group processes in coordination, enlargement of the information and activities, etc.), and a new set of beliefs and values (e.g. that an individual can and should behave responsibly, that personal and organizational goals can be compatible, that control may be widely shared without risk of anarchy etc.). As in the case of the approach to individual change, Weldon's approach to social systems change involved multiple strategies, multiple change targets, and compatibility among the system elements.²⁶

If motivation is to move people in an organizational setting toward the goals of the organization, one can only suggest that Harwood could not have been successful without operating within the same holistic conceptual framework developed in this paper.

In Retrospect on the Harwood-Weldon Corporation Experience

The experiences and activities just discussed grew out of a rare opportunity for behavioral scientists to conduct an on going evaluation in the activities of two completely different managerial strategies.²⁷ Due to the difficulty in maintaining constants and the large amount of variables involved in this type

²⁶Ibid., pp. 235-236.

²⁷ Alfred J. Marrow, "The Human Organization," in Management by Participation, ed. by Alfred J. Marrow, David F. Bowers, and Stanley T. Seashore (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1967), p. 251.

of observational endeavor, words of caution are never inappropriate. Nevertheless, the successful transformation of a floundering organization by a well planned, deliberate and well conceived transfusion process is a monumental reminder of the inherent ability of man to control his own destiny. Many of the limitations placed on man in the work environment can be, and were in Weldon, removed not only to the betterment of the organization, but to the betterment of the employees as well.

The assumptions underlying the motivational strategy of Harwood were rooted in the beliefs that work for the typical adult in our society is more than just a "job" where meeting time requirements is the ultimate objective; that people at work want to make decisions, be trusted, and respected; that physiological needs are no longer the prepotent ones they once were; that man has initiative and if let loose at work will respond in a positive fashion; and that man is not a mechanically directed mechanism without feelings and emotions.²⁸

Harwood was not attempting in changing Weldon to achieve an utopian organization, but rather to lessen the friction and manage the proverbial conflict between organizational goals and individual needs.

In concluding this chapter a statement by Alfred J. Marrow is extremely appropriate:

In the conduct of their activities, organizations are finding themselves the targets of a rebellion that

²⁸Ibid., p. 253.

is taking place in every sphere of contemporary life; industry, community, church, colleges, everywhere there are hostile human reactions to practices that coerce and dominate, that demand dependency, or that operate by bureaucratic rules that create feelings of humiliation because of forced helplessness. These long-accepted authoritarian practices are now being openly challenged. We are witnessing their disappearance in the practices of many organizations--from the P.T.A. to the Pentagon, the local laundry to the major steel produced--wherever the aim is to get the best out of human resources.²⁹

That Harwood was successful in changing Weldon into a more viable organization is a testimonial to the applicability of a framework which was appropriate, at least, in the situation in which it was activated.

One can only speculate as to the degree of success or failure Harwood might have experienced had it attempted to proceed to revitalize Weldon in a manner different from that which was employed. That is not really the relevant area of inquiry that is appropriate to examine.

The tools, techniques, devices, methods and procedures utilized are not in themselves that crucial. What is manifestly critical is the foundation or framework in which they were applied. For just as a structurally sound house built on quicksand can only collapse over a period of time, an organization constructed on an inadequate foundation can only do likewise. The strategies activated in this case to motivate the individuals in Weldon toward organizational excellence were built on a sound foundation, and that sound foundation, "one more time," arose within a conceptual framework of motivational strategy rooted

²⁹Ibid., p. 249.

in the assumptions on the nature of man applicable within the situational parameters present.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS

"People live in corporations. There is a significance in this statement that may not be immediately apparent. People do not turn a switch and shut themselves off during the time they work, although some of them try to. They experience. They think. They feel--excitement, anxiety, pleasure, annoyance, boredom, lethargy. They face challenges--physical, intellectual, and emotional. They struggle, adapt, or surrender. What they think, how they feel, and how they act are largely determined by two things--their own natures and the environment within which they operate. . . ."--Herman¹

As pointed out in the beginning of this paper, motivation is a complex process. This complexity is an outgrowth of the dynamic variables present in the motivational situation. Stanley Herman, in the above quotation, concisely addresses two very important factors: the nature of man and the environment in which man operates.

¹Stanley M. Herman, The People Specialists (New York: Alfred A. Knoff, Inc., 1968), p. 4.

Motivating people is challenging because the manager must not only initially activate an individual, but that original movement must be sustained, regulated and directed toward the accomplishment of organizational goals. The transactional character of the process, forever changing, does not lend itself to simple programmed solutions.

The perceptions of the nature of man as viewed by most present day managers span a diverse field from rational-economic man, social man, self-actualizing man to the combined concepts manifested in complex man. A manager in constructing his foundation of basic assumptions can settle on any one area or combination of areas depending on his own viewpoint of reality. Just insuring that the assumptions are explicitly examined in the selection process of arriving at a motivational strategy would be a good beginning as seen by the majority of writers in the field.

The needs which are active in members of the organization can be classified into two broad areas; primary (physiological) and secondary. A major contribution by Maslow to the field of motivation was to further classify the needs into a hierarchical arrangement of five levels. The base level being the physiological needs; safety needs composing level two; level three consisting of social needs; level four ego needs; and at the apex of the need hierarchy self-fulfillment needs would be active.

A manager in diagnosing motives such as affiliation,

achievement, competence, prestige, security or economic can translate them for meaningful application by comparing the motives to the corresponding need levels of the hierarchy. Techniques or tools would then be selected for utilization in motivating workers as the manager deems them to be appropriate.

The managerial strategy used, of course, could also vary over a wide scope depending on whether the manager operates in an authoritative, democratic, consultative, or laissez-faire fashion. The available literature continually stresses the fact that the managerial style must be consistent with the motivational tools to be used, which in turn must be in agreement with the basic assumptions made by the manager.

It is a difficult if not unfeasible situation to formulate general managerial motivational strategies valid under differing conditions. Furthermore, it is an absolute impossibility to state specific motivational methods applicable to all the particular circumstances which a manager may find himself faced by. There are no sacrosanct formulas that have been derived to fulfill these demanding types of differing requirements.

There is general agreement in the literature that what motivates an individual in one instance could have no motivating effect whatsoever when applied under similar conditions at a different time. What motivates a certain individual in a specific situation may have no effect or very little effect on other individuals in the same situation. In the same

environment and under related conditions one worker may be motivated by money, another by status, another by self-fulfillment, another by challenge; and this continues on and on. To suggest unique solutions to specific motivational cases would require an encyclopedic work of unlimited scope.

How then can a manager be guided as he addresses problems of these magnitudes? How does a manager deal with these open-ended, multidimensional considerations? Are they, in fact, amenable to solutions?

Yes, they are. The design and composition of this thesis has aimed at answering the question of how a manager can build a motivational strategy, despite the difficulties inherent in that task. The approach suggested has its application in the framework postulated, in which the manager can exercise various motivational strategies. The manager is limited only by the quality of his diagnostic skills.

The proposed framework has its foundation in the basic assumptions the manager makes on the nature of man. Of special relevance to the manager is the nature of man in the work environment. The manager cannot take motivational action uninfluenced by assumptions, whether they are adequate or not.² This is the first step in arriving at a motivational strategy; diagnosing the valid managerial assumptions on the nature of man.

The second step set forth in the framework is the

²McGregor, The Human Side of Enterprise, p. 7.

assessment of motives operational in the organization. In order to aid in analysis it was suggested that Maslow's hierarchy of needs be used as a guide to examine the active needs present in the organization. A word of caution is necessary here. To have any type of sound analysis at step two in the framework, there must be an explicit recognition of individual differences in members of the work force.

Perfection will probably never be attained in the diagnosis of the assumptions on the nature of man; motives operative in individuals in the organization; or the needs which are operational. What must be striven for is the most realistic determination that can be achieved.

Once the manager has completed steps one and two and tested them against reality, he can move on to the last process suggested in the framework.

At this last stage the manager must select a motivational strategy which is most closely associated with his basic assumptions on the nature of man in the work environment and the needs operational in those individuals who comprise the work force.

The motivational strategy arrived at will be focused on satisfying the needs uncovered and will be substantiated by the evidence collected in the earlier diagnosis. It should be fully recognized that the manager in building his strategy must not limit himself to any one motivational method. The manager will base his strategy on certain selected methods, but he must

maintain a flexibility to respond to the individual differences mentioned previously, as well as to changing circumstances. Major changes in conditions may demand a re-examination of the framework in any, or all facets pertinent to managerial review.

The case study discussed in Chapter Four of this paper had as one of its main themes the use of participative management as a motivational strategy. To suggest that the technique of participative management is the answer to motivating all people in all situations is fallacious. What is of importance is the realization that for Harwood and Weldon it was an appropriate strategy; but only because it was effective in light of their managerial assumptions on the nature of man and the requirement to fulfill those needs active in those two companies. Changing the basic assumptions and the active needs present in the case would demand a revision of the motivational strategy utilized. Various tactics are feasible within differing strategies, but strategies built on inappropriate assumptions are doomed to failure ultimately. The various sections of the framework are interdependent. Managers must recognize that fact.

There is a recognition in society today that an increasing percentage of the population is acquiring advanced education. The work force in general is better trained, more independent, more demanding and less satisfied with conditions at work (where they spend a great part of their lifetime) which

are devoid of challenge and do not utilize the skills or creative potential of man. Each manager has the task of maximizing his available human resources to the utmost. Just as it does not make sense to only use part of the effective capability of a machine, it does not make sense to only use a small part of the capability of an individual or individuals in the organization.

In arriving at a motivational strategy a manager must insure that he is not basing his approach on classical principles of organizations derived from erroneous assumptions inappropriate to the working force of today.

This thesis has not attempted to propose any new managerial strategies for motivating individuals in the work environment. That function must be accomplished by each company, department, unit or individual manager in terms of the unique concepts within which those entities or individuals operate.

The framework proposed has sought to enable any manager to choose a managerial strategy for motivation by proceeding via a systematic analysis in order to arrive at appropriate action in response to the nature of the people involved and the environmental circumstances.

The proposed framework is in itself not an end product, but is only a means to attain an end product which is consistent with present day models of political, economic, social and technological understanding.

In summary, then, the following conclusions emerge:

1. The basic assumptions a manager makes concerning

individuals in the work environment determines the motivational strategy utilized (shaped by operational motives and needs).

2. To make full use of available motivational theory, a manager must use as his base valid assumptions on the nature of man.
3. A manager must comprehend the basic motives of individuals in the work force or he will be limited in his attempts to meet workers' needs.
4. Without an understanding of the needs of employees, the manager's motivational strategy will be a failure, or be inappropriate to the realities of the situation.
5. A manager's motivational methodology will be ultimately based on his understanding of the framework from which his managerial strategy emanates.

In closing an analysis by McGregor is salient:

Management is severely hampered today in its attempts to innovate with respect to the human side of enterprise by the inadequacy of conventional organization theory. Based on invalid and limiting assumptions about human behavior, this theory blinds us to many possibilities for invention, just as the physical science theory of a half century ago prevented even the perception of the possibility of radar or space travel.

It is not important that management accept the assumptions of Theory Y. These are one man's interpretations of current social science knowledge and they will be modified--possibly supplanted--by new knowledge within a short time. It is important

that management abandon limiting assumptions like those of Theory X, so that future inventions with respect to the human side of enterprise will be more than minor changes in already obsolescent conceptions of organized human effort.³

³Ibid., p. 245.

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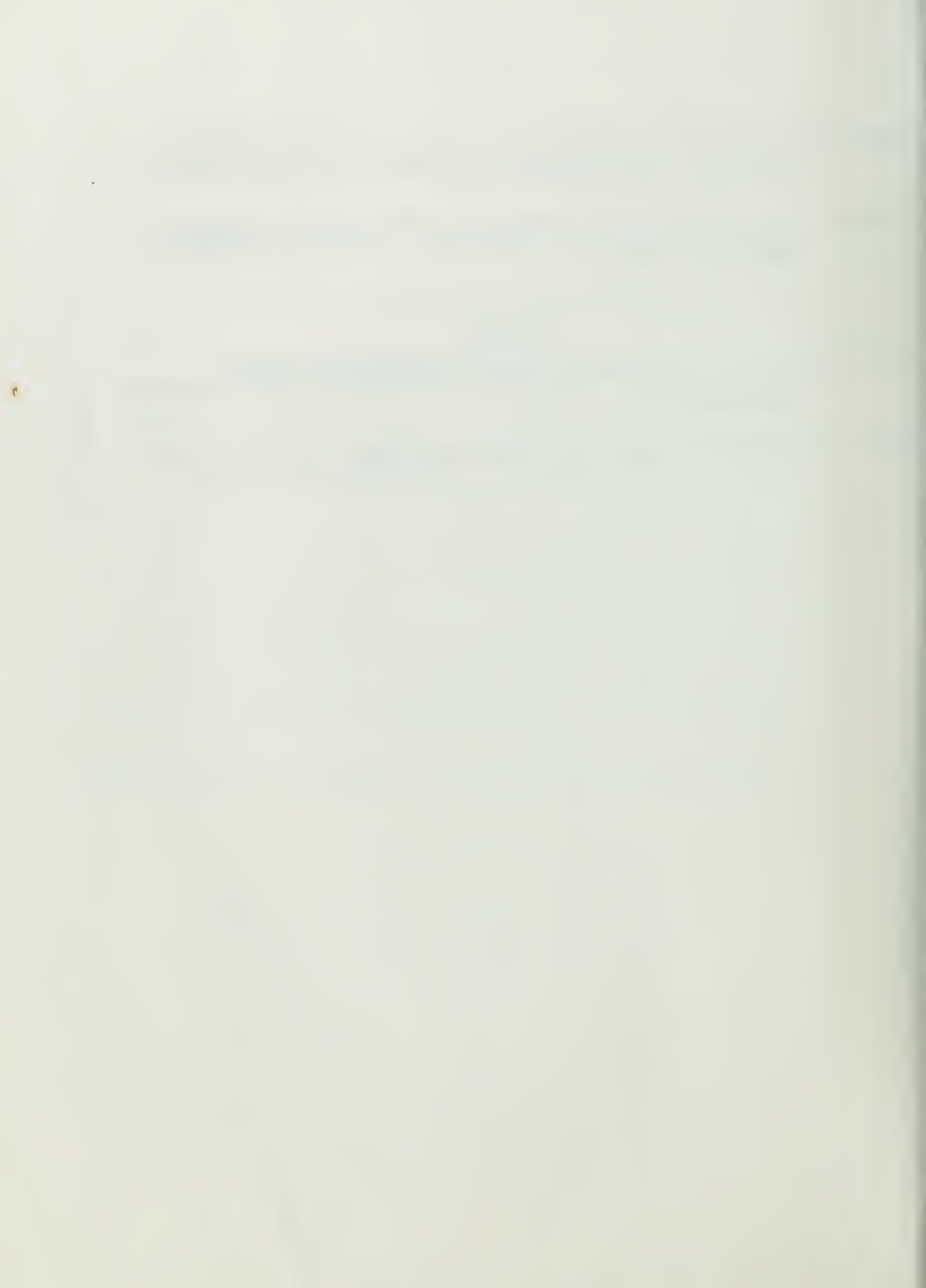
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